



Contrasting Futures for Ocean and Society from Different Anthropogenic CO₂ Emissions Scenarios

Jean-Pierre Gattuso, A Magnan, R Billé, W W L Cheung, E L Howes, F. Joos, D. Allemand, L. Bopp, S R Cooley, C M Eakin, et al.

► To cite this version:

Jean-Pierre Gattuso, A Magnan, R Billé, W W L Cheung, E L Howes, et al.. Contrasting Futures for Ocean and Society from Different Anthropogenic CO₂ Emissions Scenarios. *Science*, 2015, 349 (6243), pp.aac4722. 10.1126/science.aac4722 . hal-01176217

HAL Id: hal-01176217

<https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-01176217>

Submitted on 15 Jul 2015

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Title: Contrasting Futures for Ocean and Society from Different Anthropogenic CO₂ Emissions Scenarios

Authors: J.-P. Gattuso^{1,2,3,*}, A. Magnan³, R. Billé⁴, W. W. L. Cheung⁵, E. L. Howes⁶, F. Joos⁷, D. Allemand^{8,9}, L. Bopp¹⁰, S. R. Cooley¹¹, C. M. Eakin¹², O. Hoegh-Guldberg¹³, R. P. Kelly¹⁴, H.-O. Pörtner⁶, A.D. Rogers¹⁵, J. M. Baxter¹⁶, D. Laffoley¹⁷, D. Osborn¹⁸, A. Rankovic^{3,19}, J. Rochette³, U. R. Sumaila²⁰, S. Treyer³, C. Turley²¹

Affiliations:

¹CNRS-INSU, Laboratoire d'Océanographie de Villefranche, F-06230 Villefranche-sur-mer, France

²Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Univ Paris 06, Observatoire Océanologique, F-06230 Villefranche-sur-mer, France

³Institute for Sustainable Development and International Relations, Sciences Po, 27 rue Saint Guillaume, F-75007 Paris, France

⁴Secretariat of the Pacific Community, B.P. D5, 98848 Noumea Cedex, New Caledonia

⁵Nippon Foundation-UBC Nereus Program, The University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., Canada, V6T 1Z4

⁶Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research, Am Handelshafen 12, D-27570, Bremenhaven, Germany

⁷Climate and Environmental Physics, Physics Institute and Oeschger Centre for Climate Change Research, University of Bern, Sidlerstr. 5, CH-3012 Bern, Switzerland

⁸Centre Scientifique de Monaco, 8 Quai Antoine I^{er}, MC-98000 Monaco, Principality of Monaco

⁹Prince Albert II of Monaco Foundation, Scientific and Technical Committee, 16 Boulevard de Suisse, MC-98000 Monaco, Principality of Monaco

¹⁰IPSL/LSCE, UMR8212, CNRS-CEA-UVSQ, Gif sur Yvette, France

¹¹Ocean Conservancy, 1300 19th Street NW, 8th Floor, Washington DC 20036, USA

¹²National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Coral Reef Watch, College Park, Maryland 20740, USA

¹³Global Change Institute and ARC Centre for Excellence in Coral Reef Studies, University of Queensland, Building 20, St Lucia, 4072 Queensland, Australia

¹⁴School of Marine and Environmental Affairs, University of Washington, 3707 Brooklyn Ave NE, Seattle, Washington, USA

¹⁵Department of Zoology, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3PS, UK

¹⁶Scottish Natural Heritage, 231 Corstorphine Road, Edinburgh, Scotland, EH12 7AT

¹⁷IUCN, Rue Mauverney 28, CH-1196 Gland, Switzerland

¹⁸Environment Laboratories, International Atomic Energy Agency, 4a Quai Antoine 1er, MC-98000 Monaco, Principality of Monaco

¹⁹Program on Science, Technology and Society, John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University, 79 John F. Kennedy Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA

²⁰Fisheries Economics Research Unit, Fisheries Centre, The University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., Canada, V6T 1Z4

²¹Plymouth Marine Laboratory, Prospect Place, The Hoe, Plymouth, PL1 3DH, UK

*Correspondence to: gattuso@obs-vlfr.fr

Abstract: The ocean moderates anthropogenic climate change at the cost of profound alterations of its physics, chemistry, ecology, and services flows. Here, we evaluate and compare the risks of impacts on marine and coastal ecosystems—and the goods and services they provide—for growing cumulative carbon emissions under two contrasting emissions scenarios. The current emissions trajectory would rapidly and significantly alter many ecosystems and the associated services on which humans heavily depend. A reduced emissions scenario—consistent with the Copenhagen Accord’s goal of a global temperature increase of less than 2°C—is much more favorable to the ocean but still significantly alters important marine ecosystems and associated goods and services. The policy options to address ocean impacts narrow as the ocean warms and acidifies. Consequently, any new climate regime that fails to minimize ocean impacts would be incomplete and inadequate.

One Sentence Summary: Ocean changes associated with a 2°C warming of global surface temperature carries high risks of impacts and should not be exceeded.

Main text: Atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) has increased from 278 to 400 ppm over the industrial period, and, together with the increase of other greenhouse gases, has driven a series of major environmental changes. The global ocean (including enclosed seas) acts as a climate integrator that (1) absorbs 93% of the earth's additional heat since the 1970s, offsetting much atmospheric warming but increasing ocean temperature and sea level; (2) captures 28% of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions since 1750, leading to ocean acidification; and (3) accumulates virtually all water resulting from melting glaciers and ice sheets, hence furthering the increase in sea level. Thus, the ocean moderates anthropogenic climate change at the cost of major changes of its fundamental chemistry and physics. These changes in ocean properties profoundly affect species' biogeography and phenology, as well as ecosystem dynamics and biogeochemical cycling(1-3). Such changes inevitably impact the ecosystem services upon which humans depend. The ocean represents more than 90% of the Earth's habitable space, hosts 25% of eukaryotic species (4), provides 11% of global animal protein consumed by humans (5), protects coastlines, and more. Simply put, the ocean plays a particularly important role in the livelihood and food security of at least hundreds of millions of people.

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) aims to stabilize atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations “*at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system ... within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened, and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner*” (6). According to the Copenhagen Accord (7), meeting these goals requires that the increase in average global surface temperature increase be less than 2°C over the preindustrial average. However, despite the ocean's critical role in global ecosystem goods and services, international climate negotiations have only minimally considered ocean impacts, especially those related to ocean acidification (8). Accordingly, highlighting ocean-related issues is now crucial, given that even achieving the +2°C target (set on global temperature) would not prevent many climate-related impacts upon the ocean (9).

This paper first summarizes the key findings of the Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and, given the ongoing acceleration of climate change research, adds newer literature to assess the impacts of global change—including ocean warming, acidification, deoxygenation, and sea level rise—linking ocean physics and chemistry to biological processes, ecosystem functions, and human activities. Second, it builds on scenarios based on the range of cumulative fossil carbon emissions and the IPCC Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) RCP2.6 and RCP8.5, contrasting two potential futures. RCP2.6 reflects the UNFCCC target of global temperature staying below +2°C while RCP8.5 reflects the current trajectory of business-as-usual CO₂ emissions. Third,

this paper provides a broad discussion of the options society has for addressing ocean impacts, and ends with key messages that provide further compelling arguments for ambitious CO₂ emissions reduction pathways.

Changes in ocean physics and chemistry

Ocean changes due to anthropogenic emissions include long-term increase in temperature down to at least 700 m, increased sea level, and a decrease in Arctic summer sea ice (Fig. 1 and Table 1; ref. 10). Other radiatively-active agents such as ozone, methane, nitrous oxide and aerosols, do not affect the ocean as much as CO₂. Setting it apart, CO₂ accounts for twice or more of the warming attributed to the non-CO₂ greenhouse gases by 2100 (11) and causes ocean acidification. The uptake of excess anthropogenic CO₂ by the ocean increases the partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂) and dissolved inorganic carbon, while decreasing pH and the saturation state of seawater with respect to the calcium carbonate minerals aragonite and calcite (12), both being critical drivers of solubility of shells and skeletons. Rising global CO₂ also further exacerbates the nearshore biogeochemical changes associated with land use change, nutrient inputs, aquaculture, and fishing (13).

Both the magnitude and rate of the anthropogenic carbon perturbation exceeds the extent of natural variation over the last millennium and over glacial-interglacial time scales (14-16). Variability of pH in coastal waters is considerably larger than that in the open ocean, partly driven by upwelling (17), freshwater input (18), eutrophication (19) and biogeochemical processes (20). Anthropogenic trends in biogeochemical variables—notably in pH, pCO₂ and the saturation of calcite and aragonite—emerge from the noise of natural variability much faster than sea surface temperature (21). The combined changes in these parameters will be distinguishable from natural fluctuations in 41% of the global ocean within a decade (22), and the change in aragonite saturation over the industrial period has been more than five times greater than natural variability over the last millennium in many regions (15).

The condition of the future ocean depends on the amount of carbon emitted in the coming decades (Fig. 1 and 2). The current suite of Earth System Models illustrate the contrast between future oceans under the high-carbon-emission, business-as-usual RCP8.5 versus the stringent emission-mitigation RCP2.6 (23, 24). The more stringent scenario allows less than one-sixth of 21st century emissions expected under business-as-usual. Between 2012 and 2100, compatible cumulative carbon emissions from fossil fuel use are 1685 GtC and 270 GtC for the two RCPs, respectively (10, 25). This is in addition to the 375 and 180 GtC already emitted by 2011 by fossil fuel and land use, respectively (25). As carbon emissions were 10 GtC in 2013 (26), fast and massive emission reductions are required to keep global surface temperature below the 2°C target of the Copenhagen Accord. Carbon emissions would need to be even lower if the ocean absorbs less excess CO₂ than is currently predicted. Indeed, the ocean's

effectiveness in absorbing CO₂ decreases with increasing emissions: the fraction of anthropogenic emissions absorbed by the ocean in the 21st century is projected to decline from 56% for RCP2.6 to 22% for RCP8.5 (27).

Ocean physics and chemistry will be quite different under these two emissions scenarios although differences between the two trajectories will not be apparent until 2035. In 2100 the ocean will be much warmer and have a lower pH under RCP8.5 than under RCP2.6 (Fig. 1): the 21st century global mean change in sea surface temperature (SST) differs by nearly a factor of 4 (mean \pm 1 s.d.: 2.73 ± 0.72 vs $0.71 \pm 0.45^\circ\text{C}$) while global surface pH changes range from -0.33 ± 0.003 to -0.07 ± 0.001). By 2100, the average global increase in mean sea-level relative to preindustrial is projected to be 0.86 m for RCP8.5 and 0.60 m for RCP2.6 (28). By 2300, it will be less than 1 m for RCP2.6 and from 1 to over 3 m for RCP8.5 (10). Generally, an increase in stratification, linked to sea-surface warming and freshening, is projected; this tends to slow ocean carbon uptake and nutrient supply to the surface (29).

CO₂ emissions also affect the deep ocean although the responses are delayed by the surface-to-deep transport time and continue for centuries even after carbon emissions cease (30). The volume of ocean water that is supersaturated by more than a factor of three with respect to aragonite ($\Omega_a > 3$) is projected to completely vanish over the course of the century for RCP8.5 and to decrease from 2% to 1.25% of the ocean volume for RCP2.6 (Fig. 1; Table 1). Conversely, the volume occupied by undersaturated water ($\Omega_a < 1$) that is corrosive to unprotected calcium carbonate shells and skeletons, expands from 76% of the whole ocean volume in the 1990s to 91% in 2100 with RCP8.5 and to only 83% with RCP2.6. The whole ocean oxygen inventory is consistently projected to decrease (RCP8.5: $-3.45 \pm 0.44\%$; RCP2.6: $-1.81 \pm 0.31\%$) with largest changes in the subsurface mid-latitude regions. However, it remains unclear whether, and to what extent, low oxygen regions will expand and whether the observed expansion of oxygen minimum zones over recent decades resulted from direct anthropogenic perturbation or was caused by natural variability (31, 32).

Projections of ocean warming and acidification in coastal systems follow the general trends of global and regional IPCC models, but have lower confidence values due to larger contributions of processes other than CO₂ uptake (3). Projected regional changes vary, with largest sea-surface warming in the North Pacific, the Tropical East Pacific, and in parts of the Arctic, and largest surface pH decrease in the Arctic (Fig. 1 and 3). By 2100, 69% of the surface ocean will warm by more than 1.5°C and acidify by more than -0.2 pH units relative to pre-industrial under RCP8.5 as opposed to less than 1% under RCP2.6 (Fig. 3). The largest absolute decrease in aragonite saturation is projected for the tropical ocean, partly modulated by variability within coral reef sites (33, 34). Seasonally undersaturated conditions are already present in the northeastern Pacific and the California upwelling system (17) and in the Arctic Ocean (35), and expected for the Southern Ocean (36). pH reductions at the seafloor below 500 m depth, which includes biodiversity hotspots such as deep-sea canyons and seamounts, are projected to exceed 0.2 units (the likely bound of natural variability over the past hundreds of thousands of

years) by 2100 in close to 23% of North Atlantic deep-sea canyons and 8% of seamounts under RCP8.5—including sites proposed as marine protected area (37).

In summary, the carbon that we emit today will change the Earth System irreversibly for many generations to come (10). The ocean's content of carbon, acidity, and heat as well as sea level will continue to increase long after atmospheric CO₂ is stabilized. These irreversible changes increase with increasing emissions (Fig. 2), underscoring the urgency of near-term carbon emission reduction if ocean warming and acidification are to be kept at moderate levels.

Effects on biological processes and ecosystems

Organisms and ecosystems are changing in response to ocean warming, acidification and deoxygenation. The inherent difficulty of distinguishing climate signals from natural variability (38), and of accounting for genetic adaptation (39) makes documenting these shifts challenging, but nevertheless, broad anthropogenic impacts are evident (Fig. 2B and 3).

Warming

Species' range shifts, usually following a shift in isotherms or temperature extremes, is a key consequence of ocean warming (40). Recent studies strongly reiterate that many species—including various invertebrates, commercially important fish species and marine mammals—are undergoing phenological and geographical shifts of up to 400 km per decade as a result of warming (41, 42). Organisms move at different rates as they track temperature changes and local climate velocities according to their ecological niches (43, 44). These shifts will continue with projected ocean warming (42, 45), causing potentially permanent changes to ecosystems, including local extinctions (42), while simultaneously producing novel assemblages (46). Responses to changing temperature depend on species' specific windows of thermal tolerance and are positively related to the degree of warming. Exceeding these limits can affect growth, body size, behavior, immune defense, feeding, and reproductive success (2), although species' individual tolerances vary. Globally, poleward range shifts of more than 800 species of exploited marine fishes and invertebrates projected under RCP8.5 are 65% faster than those under RCP2.6 by mid-21st century relative to the years 2000s (42). There is medium confidence that animals adapted to a wide range of temperatures will cope better with future conditions while tropical and polar specialists are at greatest risk (2). Changes are not synchronous across trophic levels as alterations in body sizes within food webs (47) and in food web composition (48) have been reported. Recent experimental studies suggest that some species may adapt to warming projected under RCP8.5 (e.g. 49, 50) but biogeographical shifts restrict adaptive potential and the small number of species- and population-scale studies limit the ability to generalize the importance of genetic adaptation in moderating impacts.

Reef-building corals are extremely vulnerable to warming (1, 2, 51). Warming causes mass mortality of warm-water corals through bleaching as well as through biotic diseases, resulting in declines in coral abundance and biodiversity. Coral reefs can recover from bleaching events when thermal stress is minimal and of short duration (52). However, ocean warming and acidification are expected to act synergistically to push corals and coral reefs into conditions that are unfavorable for coral reef ecosystems (53). There is limited agreement and low confidence on the potential for corals to adapt to rapid warming. Most coral species have clearly adapted to warm environments (54, 55) although the timescale of adaptation is likely to be long given the relatively lengthy generation times of corals (3 to 100 years; ref. 56). Recent studies have shown short-term acclimation and adaptation in some fast growing species (57) and suggested that some genetic mechanisms may allow faster rates of change (58). It is, however, doubtful that corals will be able to adapt quickly enough to maintain populations under most emissions scenarios (56, 59, 60), especially where temperature keeps increasing over time (RCP4.5 and higher). Temperature is also an important determinant of deep-sea coral distribution, although less is known about how deep coral communities respond to thermal stress (61). The consensus is that adaptive responses of organisms will have little chance to keep current ecosystems unchanged if ocean temperatures and chemistry are not stabilized, giving marine ecosystems the time needed to adapt to the new, stable environmental conditions.

Ocean acidification

Organisms producing calcium carbonate shells and skeletons experience the strongest negative impacts from ocean acidification (62). Responses to future levels of ocean acidification expected by 2100 under RCP8.5 include reduced calcification, reduced rates of repair, and weakened calcified structures, but responses are species-specific (*e.g.* 63). Reproductive success, early life-stage survival, feeding rate and stress-response mechanisms may also be affected (2). Most studies have investigated the effects of ocean acidification on isolated organisms; far less is known about the effects on communities and ecosystems.

Few studies measure present-day acidification effects in natural settings. However, recent field observations show a decrease in coccolith thickness over the last 12 years in the Mediterranean (64) and dissolution of live pteropod shells in the California Current System and Southern Ocean, both areas that experience significant anthropogenic acidification (65, 66). Recent investigations have also begun to report community-level responses, for example in phytoplanktonic (67, 68), bacterial (69), seagrass (70) and algal (71) communities. Decreases in net calcification, at least partly due to ocean acidification, have also been observed in a coral reef over 1975-2008 (72) and conditions are already shifting some coral reefs to net erosion (73).

Most studies have investigated phenotypically plastic responses in relatively short-term, single-generation, experiments, therefore not considering the potential for transgenerational response

and genetic adaptation (74). Studies published since the AR5 have expanded on the longer term responses to ocean acidification and have found that transgenerational and evolutionary responses can partly mitigate adverse effects for example in phytoplankton (75), planktonic crustaceans (76), sea urchins (77) and fish (78).

Deoxygenation

Expanding oxygen minimum zones benefit microbes and life forms adapted to hypoxia while restricting the ranges of most other species (2), with eutrophication from coastal pollution exacerbating the problem, resulting in organic matter increasing metabolic rates in deeper coastal areas (79). Moreover, higher temperatures increase species' sensitivity to hypoxia (80), limiting the depth distribution of fish and invertebrates not adapted to hypoxic conditions (81), and leading to community-level shifts to smaller, multicellular Eukarya, Bacteria and Archaea under conditions of diminished O₂ (82). Conversely, hypoxia-adapted species are likely to benefit, as illustrated by the range-expansion of a squid adapted to hypoxia (83).

Multiple drivers

Investigations of single drivers can produce misleading inferences about organismal responses in a multivariate natural environment because interactive (additive, synergistic or antagonistic) effects often are not predictable from single-driver studies. This is a major source of uncertainty for projections (39) but several recent studies have better characterized interactions among some drivers. Changes in temperature and pH, such as those projected under RCP8.5 for the year 2100, can have synergistic negative effects on species growth, survival, fitness, calcification, and development (84-88). In some cases, hypoxic conditions can mediate negative effects of ocean acidification (89, 90) but ocean acidification and hypoxia increase heat sensitivity and vice-versa (2), and oxygen loss combined with warming is projected to contract metabolically viable habitats of marine animals on a global scale (91). Growing evidence also suggests that interactions of other environmental factors such as irradiance, nutrient availability, geographic location, and species community composition can strongly modulate the biological effects of warming, ocean acidification, and hypoxia (68, 92-95). Few studies address the potential for genetic adaptation to multiple drivers but the phytoplankton *Emiliania huxleyi* can adapt to simultaneous warming and acidification (49). Other direct human impacts (such as fishing) can reduce the adaptive capacity of marine species and ecosystems to CO₂-related impacts. For example, fishing reduces species diversity, simplifies the trophic food web and increases ecosystem sensitivity to climate change (96). Because relatively little is known on the interacting effects of environmental factors and the complexity of the marine food web, it is premature to make ecosystem-wide projections. However, impacts on keystone species and ecosystem engineers of three-dimensional habitats are likely to shift whole communities (97).

Present-day impact and future risks

The observed impacts and future additional risks due to ocean warming and acidification vary by organism and ecosystem (Fig. 2B). Warm-water corals are already impacted as are mid-latitude seagrass, high-latitude pteropods and krill, mid-latitude bivalves, and finfish. If CO₂ levels are kept to the RCP2.6 scenario, by 2100 the risk of impacts increase to “high” for warm-water corals and mid-latitude bivalves. Projections with RCP8.5 indicate very high risk of impact on most marine organisms considered, except mangrove. Avoiding very high levels of risk requires limiting the increase in atmospheric temperature between 1990 and 2100 to below 2°C and the increase in SST below ca. 1.2°C. These risks of impact, based on perturbation experiments, field observations, and modeling, are consistent with the paleo-record which indicates mass extinctions triggered by carbon perturbation events such as at the Permo-Triassic boundary (at a rate slower than the present one; ref. 98) or severe losses of deep-sea fauna during the last glaciation, attributed to oxygen depletion (99). Evolution in response to environmental changes that occurred much slower than those projected in the coming decades did not, therefore, prevent major large-scale alterations of marine ecosystems. Levels of confidence are generally medium to very high for RCP2.6 but significantly lower for RCP8.5, except for seagrass, warm-water corals and pteropods for which it remains high or very high (see Supplementary Materials).

Effects on ecosystem services and ocean-related human activities

Ocean warming, acidification and deoxygenation alter earth-system-regulating processes (e.g., climate, heat distribution, weather, water flow, waste treatment), habitat provision, and cultural services (e.g. recreation and leisure, inspiration, cultural heritage; ref. 100). As a consequence, CO₂-driven global change is expected to result in economic impacts for humans through the alteration of ocean-derived resources and increasing risks to public health, human development, well-being, and security (101).

Ocean carbon uptake

Ocean uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ is a key service to society which moderates climate change, although it comes at the cost of ocean acidification. CO₂ uptake depends on multiple processes, many of which are sensitive to climate change (see above; ref. 102), and the open ocean is projected to absorb a decreasing fraction of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions as those emissions increase. The fraction of 21st century emissions remaining in the atmosphere consequently increases from 30% for RCP2.6 to 69% for RCP8.5 (27). The contribution of vegetated coastal ecosystems—including seagrasses, mangrove forests and salt marshes—to contemporary carbon sequestration (103) is an order of magnitude less than that of the land biosphere and open ocean and the coastal carbon sequestered is likely part of the natural carbon

cycle rather than related to anthropogenic emissions. The projected loss of these habitats would not only reduce this relatively small uptake of CO₂ but would also release carbon previously stored, and thus exacerbate CO₂-driven changes.

Coastal protection

Coastal habitats—including coral reefs, oyster beds, mangrove forests, salt marshes, kelp forests, and seagrass beds—protect human infrastructure notably by reducing coastal wave energy, with additional benefits such as limitation of coastal erosion and marine inundation (104, 105). Nevertheless, the projected increases in coastal human settlements and sea level will combine to expose 0.2 to 4.6% of the global population to inundation annually at a cost to global gross domestic product of 0.3 to 9.3% (106). The value of coastal protection in terms of prevented damage can be very large. Coastal wetlands in the US were estimated to provide US\$ 23.2 billion yr⁻¹ in storm protection services (107). In contrast to human infrastructure, natural habitats can grow to keep up with sea-level rise, depending on the rate and local conditions, while offering other ecosystem services such as fish and timber (104, 108). These habitats are, however, themselves impacted by ocean warming and acidification in combination with other human disturbances such as urbanization, deforestation, dredging, making global projections difficult.

Capture fisheries

Ocean warming significantly impacts provisioning services through its effects on marine capture fisheries (109). Warm-water species have increasingly dominated global fishery catches in recent decades, which can be attributed to a warming ocean (110-114). In addition, the maximum size of exploited fishes decreases with rising sea surface temperature and decreasing oxygen level, ultimately reducing potential fish yield (115) in agreement with model predictions (110).

Human communities, especially in developing nations, that depend heavily on coastal fisheries resources for food, economic security, and traditional culture, are at particular risk from shifts in ocean primary productivity and species ranges (116-120). For example, tropical fisheries yield is expected to decrease (42, 117, 121) in ways that vary among sub-regions and species (120). The loss of critical habitats such as coral reefs and mangroves will exacerbate the impacts on tropical fisheries and hence on vulnerable human communities. Substantial declines for tropical fisheries are projected, with robust evidence and strong agreement, even under RCP2.6 by mid 21st century.

Arctic fisheries may benefit from increased primary production, with projected revenue increasing by 14 to 59% by mid 21st century relative to the present day under a high-emissions

scenario (118). Nevertheless, the Arctic faces increasing overall risk because it is a hotspot of ocean acidification and social vulnerability (including high economic and nutritional dependence on marine resources, and limited employment and nutritional alternatives; ref. 118, 122). Risk of impacts on mid-latitude fisheries is more variable depending on the locations and exploited species but it is expected to increase substantially under RCP8.5 due to the combination of ocean warming, acidification and deoxygenation (2, 123, 124). Eventually, changes in the accessibility of marine resources will likely lead to increasing geopolitical and governance challenges for managing trans-boundary stocks and mitigating overexploitation (125, 126), leading to additional economic and societal costs that will be felt unequally and will place heavier burdens on less advantaged human communities.

Aquaculture

Climate and acidification-related impacts to aquaculture are expected to be generally negative, with impacts varying by location, species, and aquaculture method. Farmed species at higher trophic levels are expected to exhibit higher mortality rates and lower productivity under warming, with open and semi-open aquaculture and those in the tropics particularly at risk (127, 128). A reduction of mussel production by 50 or 70% is projected in the UK under the RCP2.6 or RCP8.5 scenarios, respectively (127). Projected declines in oyster production due to warming are much lower but ocean acidification increases the risk in upwelling areas such as the Northeast Pacific (129). The global economic cost of losses in the capture and aquaculture of molluscs due to ocean acidification based on the high-emissions scenario RCP8.5 could be higher than US\$100 billion by the year 2100 (130). Sea level rise will bring saline water into deltas and estuaries, where aquaculture commonly occurs (131), driving aquaculture upstream and destroying wetlands. Infectious diseases also pose a greater threat to aquaculture in a warmer ocean with impacts observed, for example, in oysters and abalone aquaculture (132) and coastal fish farming (133). Risks are also generated by the increased mobility of invasive species (46).

Tourism

Decreases in the quality and abundance of coral reef cover are expected to negatively impact tourism (1, 3). Loss of coral reefs to tourism under the RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios could cost between US\$1.9 billion and US\$12 billion per year, respectively (134). Coral reef losses due to ocean warming and acidification on the Great Barrier Reef place up to \$5.7 billion and 69,000 jobs in Australia at risk (135). In addition, ocean acidification may cause an annual loss of reef ecosystem services that are valued up to US\$1 trillion by 2100 (136). For about a quarter of countries with reef-related tourism, mainly less developed countries, this kind of tourism accounts for more than 15% of gross domestic product (137) and is more sustainable than extractive livelihoods.

Human health

Ocean warming and acidification affect public health and security, although the impact pathways and associated costs are poorly understood. Hosts and parasites are likely to undergo poleward range shifts under climate change, and disease outbreaks of cholera (138) and other *Vibrio* infections (139) have already been linked to warmer conditions. The increased risk of pathogens and parasites in marine species and increased opportunities for pathogen transfer between hosts (140) can reduce food security (141). Increasing intensity and frequency of storm surges and sea-level rise may expand the geographical and seasonal ranges of bacteria, increasing human exposure to diseases (132). Inundation can also flood agricultural land in coastal regions, jeopardizing food security and harming human health (142).

Present-day impact and future risks

The impacts of ocean acidification and warming have already been detected in some key ecosystem services such as coastal protection and capture fisheries (Fig. 2C and 3). The risks of impacts increase as a function of increased temperature and decreased pH but are still moderate by 2100 for most services with the RCP2.6 scenario. However, under RCP8.5, we find that the risks of impact will become high or very high by 2100 for all seven ecosystem services considered. Fin fisheries at low latitude will be affected sooner than other services; they will face very high risk at a CO₂ level corresponding to RCP2.6 in 2100. In addition, cumulative or synergistic impacts with other human-induced drivers such as overexploitation of living resources, habitat destruction and pollution will likely exacerbate the risk of CO₂-related impacts.

Management options

Limiting the effects of ocean warming and acidification is critical considering the widespread risks of impacts facing natural and human systems, even under a stringent emissions scenario (RCP2.6; Fig. 2). A growing body of literature presents options for action in response to climate change and ocean acidification (143-145). Drawing on Billé et al. (146), these actions can be clustered in four groups (Fig. 4): reducing the drivers of climate change and ocean acidification (mitigate), building or maintaining resilience in ecosystems (protect), adapting human societies (adapt), and repairing damage that has already occurred (repair). At present, only one of these (reducing CO₂ emissions) addresses the fundamental problem; the others merely delay or decrease impacts (e.g., protecting reefs from major disturbances such as coral mining). Some actions rely on readily available technologies (e.g., sewage treatment plants to reduce exacerbating effects of coastal nutrient pollution) and socio-economic mechanisms (e.g., coastal setback zones), while more engineering-intensive techniques are being developed and will require testing (e.g., removal of CO₂ from the atmosphere). These options interact. For

example, reducing secondary environmental stressors so as to retain ecosystem resilience works over some range of $p\text{CO}_2$ values but is ultimately relevant only if ocean warming and acidification are drastically limited. One cannot manage coral reef resilience, for example, if there are no healthy reefs remaining (46). Importantly, some policy options are antagonistic: for example solar radiation management could limit the increase of surface temperature but would reduce the incentive to cut greenhouse gases emissions including CO_2 , thereby providing no relief from ocean acidification (147).

A positive development is that a widening range of stakeholders are testing new practices or reviving old ones, including CO_2 extraction from seawater (148), assisted evolution of corals (149), coral farming (150), and customary local management (151). Such field tests provide useable information and tools for decision-makers and climate negotiators as to the costs, benefits, and timing of mitigation and adaptation actions. Aquaculture, for example, has shown some potential to reduce the risk of impacts from climate change and ocean acidification through societal adaptation such as improved monitoring, and changing cultured species or farm locations (127, 152). However, the cost of adaptation measures—such as real-time monitoring of water chemistry—can be prohibitive and not within the reach of most aquaculture operations, especially those in the developing world. Ecosystem-based adaptation—or using ecosystems to reduce the vulnerability of people—appears to offer cost-efficient solutions bringing multiple co-benefits, especially for developing countries and marginalized communities (153). Stimulating ecosystem resilience by reducing the number and magnitude of local stressors and setting up marine protected areas (154) with strictly enforced no-take areas and limited pollutant inputs also stand out as tractable priorities. Moreover, some regions and local areas which are relatively less exposed to warming, hypoxia and acidification, could be climate change refugia where more favorable environmental conditions would enable survival under CO_2 -driven impacts (155). Thus, identifying these climate change refugia and conserving biodiversity there contribute to building resilience to climate change (156). Nevertheless all these options require appropriate policy frameworks and financial commitments to cover transaction and opportunity costs, surveillance, enforcement and monitoring, and likely offer only limited protection in the face of persistent climate change and ocean acidification.

As the ocean warms and acidifies, the range of protection, adaptation and repair options—and our confidence in those options—dwindles, while the cost of remaining options skyrockets. Lower-emissions scenarios such as RCP2.6 leave society with a greater number of effective options for safeguarding marine ecosystems and the services they provide. Therefore, actions that do not reduce carbon emissions are meaningful ocean management options only if the future climate regime entails ambitious national contributions towards the phaseout of global CO_2 emissions as well as a strong funding mechanism and a relevant framework to support on-the-ground implementation of these options.

Key messages

Maintaining ocean ecosystems and services depends in large part on the negotiation process towards a global climate agreement under the UNFCCC. In this regard, four key messages emerge from our analysis. First, the ocean strongly influences the climate system and provides important services to humans. Second, impacts on key marine and coastal organisms, ecosystems, and services from anthropogenic CO₂ emissions are already detectable and several will face high risk of impacts well before 2100, even with the stringent CO₂ emissions scenario (RCP2.6). These impacts are occurring across all latitudes, and have become a global concern that spans the traditional North/South divide. Third, the analysis shows that immediate and substantial reduction of CO₂ emissions is required in order to prevent the massive and effectively irreversible impacts on ocean ecosystems and their services that are projected with emissions scenarios more severe than RCP2.6. Limiting emissions to below this level is necessary to meet UNFCCC's stated objectives. Policy options that overlook CO₂, such as solar radiation management and control of methane emission, will only minimize impacts of ocean warming and not those of ocean acidification. Fourth, as CO₂ increases, the protection, adaptation and repair options for the ocean become fewer and less effective.

Given the contrasting futures we have outlined here, the ocean provides further compelling arguments for rapid and rigorous CO₂ emission reduction and eventual reduction of atmospheric CO₂ content. As a result, any new global climate agreement that does not minimize the impacts on the ocean will be incomplete and inadequate.

References and Notes:

1. O. Hoegh-Guldberg *et al.*, The ocean in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 1655-1731.
2. H.-O. Pörtner *et al.*, Ocean systems in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 411-484.
3. P. P. Wong *et al.*, Coastal systems and low-lying areas in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 361-409.
4. C. Mora, D. P. Tittensor, S. Adl, A. G. Simpson, B. Worm, How many species are there on Earth and in the ocean? *PLoS Biol.* **9**, e1001127 (2011). doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.1001127
5. FAO, *The state of world fisheries and aquaculture 2014* (FAO, Rome, 2014), pp. 223.
6. United Nations, *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change* (United Nations, New York, 1992).
7. Copenhagen Accord, *Decision 2/CP.15: Copenhagen accord* (UNFCCC, Geneva, 2009).
8. E. R. Harrould-Kolieb, D. Herr, Ocean acidification and climate change: synergies and challenges of addressing both under the UNFCCC. *Clim. Policy* **12**, 378-389 (2012). doi: 10.1080/14693062.2012.620788

9. IPCC, Summary for policymakers in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 32.
10. T. F. Stocker *et al.*, Technical summary in, T. F. Stocker *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2013), pp. 33-115.
11. K. M. Strassmann, G. K. Plattner, F. Joos, CO₂ and non-CO₂ radiative forcings in climate projections for twenty-first century mitigation scenarios. *Clim. Dyn.* (2009). doi: 10.1007/s00382-008-0505-4
12. J.-P. Gattuso, L. Hansson, Ocean acidification: background and history in, J.-P. Gattuso, L. Hansson, Eds. (Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2011), pp. 1-20.
13. L. A. Levin *et al.*, Comparative biogeochemistry-ecosystem-human interactions on dynamic continental margins. *J. Mar. Syst.* **141**, 3-17 (2015). doi: 10.1016/j.jmarsys.2014.04.016
14. D. Lüthi *et al.*, High-resolution carbon dioxide concentration record 650,000-800,000 years before present. *Nature* **453**, 379-382 (2008). doi: 10.1038/nature06949
15. T. Friedrich *et al.*, Detecting regional anthropogenic trends in ocean acidification against natural variability. *Nat. Clim. Change* **2**, 167-171 (2012). doi: 10.1038/nclimate1372
16. F. Joos, R. Spahni, Rates of change in natural and anthropogenic radiative forcing over the past 20,000 years. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **105**, 1425-1430 (2008). doi: 10.1073/pnas.0707386105
17. R. A. Feely, C. L. Sabine, J. M. Hernandez-Ayon, D. Ianson, B. Hales, Evidence for upwelling of corrosive "acidified" water onto the continental shelf. *Science* **320**, 1490-1492 (2008). doi: 10.1126/science.1155676
18. J. Salisbury, M. Green, C. Hunt, J. Campbell, Coastal acidification by rivers: a new threat to shellfish? *Eos* **89**, 513 (2008). doi: 10.1029/2008EO500001
19. W.-J. Cai *et al.*, Acidification of subsurface coastal waters enhanced by eutrophication. *Nature Geosci.* **4**, 766-770 (2011). doi: 10.1038/ngeo1297
20. A. V. Borges, N. Gypens, Carbonate chemistry in the coastal zone responds more strongly to eutrophication than to ocean acidification. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **55**, 346-353 (2010). doi: 10.4319/lo.2010.55.1.0346
21. K. M. Keller, F. Joos, C. C. Raible, Time of emergence of trends in ocean biogeochemistry. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 3647-3659 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bg-11-3647-2014
22. K. B. Rodgers, J. Lin, T. L. Frölicher, Emergence of multiple ocean ecosystem drivers in a large ensemble suite with an earth system model. *Biogeosciences Discuss.* **11**, 18189-18227 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bgd-11-18189-2014
23. L. Bopp *et al.*, Multiple stressors of ocean ecosystems in the 21st century: projections with CMIP5 models. *Biogeosciences* **10**, 6225-6245 (2013). doi: 10.5194/bg-10-6225-2013
24. M. Steinacher, F. Joos, T. F. Stocker, Allowable carbon emissions lowered by multiple climate targets. *Nature* **499**, 197-201 (2013). doi: 10.1038/nature12269
25. P. Ciais *et al.*, Carbon and other biogeochemical cycles in, T. F. Stocker *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2013), pp. 465-570.
26. T. A. Boden, G. Marland, R. J. Andres, *Global, regional, and national fossil-fuel CO₂ emissions* (Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge, Tenn., U.S.A., 2013).

27. C. Jones *et al.*, Twenty-first-century compatible CO₂ emissions and airborne fraction simulated by CMIP5 earth system models under four representative concentration pathways. *J. Clim.* **26**, 4398-4413 (2013). doi: 10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00554.1
28. J. A. Church *et al.*, Sea level change in, T. F. Stocker *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2013), pp. 1137-1216.
29. T. Roy *et al.*, Regional impacts of climate change and atmospheric CO₂ on future ocean carbon uptake: a multimodel linear feedback analysis. *J. Clim.* **24**, 2300-2318 (2011). doi: 10.1175/2010JCLI3787.1
30. T. L. Frölicher, F. Joos, Reversible and irreversible impacts of greenhouse gas emissions in multi-century projections with the NCAR global coupled carbon cycle-climate model. *Clim. Dyn.* **35**, 1-21 (2010). doi: 10.1007/s00382-009-0727-0
31. S. Emerson, S. Bushinsky, Oxygen oxygen concentrations and biological fluxes in the open ocean. *Oceanography* **27**, 168-171 (2014). doi: 10.5670/oceanog.2014.20
32. V. Cocco *et al.*, Oxygen and indicators of stress for marine life in multi-model global warming projections. *Biogeosciences* **10**, 1849-1868 (2013). doi: 10.5194/bg-10-1849-2013
33. E. C. Shaw, B. I. McNeil, B. Tilbrook, R. Matear, M. L. Bates, Anthropogenic changes to seawater buffer capacity combined with natural reef metabolism induce extreme future coral reef CO₂ conditions. *Global Change Biol.* **19**, 1632-1641 (2013). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12154
34. T. Cyronak, I. R. Santos, D. V. Erler, D. T. Maher, B. D. Eyre, Drivers of pCO₂ variability in two contrasting coral reef lagoons: The influence of submarine groundwater discharge. *Global Biogeochem. Cycles* **28**, 398-414 (2014). doi: 10.1002/2013GB004598
35. L. L. Robbins *et al.*, Baseline monitoring of the Western Arctic Ocean estimates 20% of Canadian Basin surface waters are undersaturated with respect to aragonite. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e73796 (2013). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0073796
36. B. Mattsdotter, M., A. Fransson, A. Torstensson, M. Chierici, Ocean acidification state in western Antarctic surface waters: controls and interannual variability. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 57-73 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bg-11-57-2014
37. M. Gehlen *et al.*, Projected pH reductions by 2100 might put deep North Atlantic biodiversity at risk. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 6955-6967 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bg-11-6955-2014
38. P. W. Boyd, S. T. Lennartz, D. M. Glover, S. C. Doney, Biological ramifications of climate-change-mediated oceanic multi-stressors. *Nat. Clim. Change* **5**, 71-79 (2015). doi: 10.1038/nclimate2441
39. U. Riebesell, J.-P. Gattuso, Lessons learned from ocean acidification research. *Nat. Clim. Change* **5**, 12-14 (2015). doi: 10.1038/nclimate2456
40. E. Poloczanska, O. Hoegh-Guldberg, W. Cheung, H.-O. Pörtner, M. T. Burrows, Observed global responses of marine biogeography, abundance, and phenology to climate change in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 123-127.
41. L. E. Chambers *et al.*, Phenological changes in the southern hemisphere. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e75514 (2013). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0075514
42. M. C. Jones, W. W. L. Cheung, Multi-model ensemble projections of climate change effects on global marine biodiversity. *ICES J. Mar. Sci.* **72**, 741-752 (2015). doi: 10.1093/icesjms/fsu172

43. M. L. Pinsky, B. Worm, M. J. Fogarty, J. L. Sarmiento, S. A. Levin, Marine taxa track local climate velocities. *Science* **341**, 1239-1242 (2013). doi: 10.1126/science.1239352
44. J. G. Hiddink, M. T. Burrows, J. García Molinos, Temperature tracking by North Sea benthic invertebrates in response to climate change. *Global Change Biol.* **21**, 117-129 (2015). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12726
45. M. S. Wisz *et al.*, Arctic warming will promote Atlantic–Pacific fish interchange. *Nat. Clim. Change* **5**, 261-265 (2015). doi: 10.1038/nclimate2500
46. O. Hoegh-Guldberg, J. F. Bruno, The impact of climate change on the world's marine ecosystems. *Science* **328**, 1523-1528 (2010). doi: 10.1126/science.1189930
47. J. P. Gibert, J. P. DeLong, Temperature alters food web body-size structure. *Biol. Lett.* **10**, (2014). doi: 10.1098/rsbl.2014.0473
48. A. Verges *et al.*, The tropicalization of temperate marine ecosystems: climate-mediated changes in herbivory and community phase shifts. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B* **281**, 20140846 (2014). doi: 10.1098/rspb.2014.0846
49. L. Schlüter *et al.*, Adaptation of a globally important coccolithophore to ocean warming and acidification. *Nat. Clim. Change* **4**, 1024-1030 (2014). doi: 10.1038/nclimate2379
50. N. J. Muñoz, A. P. Farrell, J. W. Heath, B. D. Neff, Adaptive potential of a Pacific salmon challenged by climate change. *Nat. Clim. Change* **5**, 163-166 (2015). doi: 10.1038/nclimate2473
51. J.-P. Gattuso, O. Hoegh-Guldberg, H.-O. Pörtner, Coral reefs in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 97-100.
52. N. A. Graham, S. Jennings, M. A. MacNeil, D. Mouillot, S. K. Wilson, Predicting climate-driven regime shifts versus rebound potential in coral reefs. *Nature* **518**, 94-97 (2015). doi: 10.1038/nature14140
53. O. Hoegh-Guldberg *et al.*, Coral reefs under rapid climate change and ocean acidification. *Science* **318**, 1737-1742 (2007). doi: 10.1126/science.1152509
54. B. C. C. Hume *et al.*, *Symbiodinium thermophilum* sp. nov., a thermotolerant symbiotic alga prevalent in corals of the world's hottest sea, the Persian/Arabian Gulf. *Sci. Rep.* **5**, 8562 (2015). doi: 10.1038/srep08562
55. R. N. Silverstein, R. Cunnig, A. C. Baker, Change in algal symbiont communities after bleaching, not prior heat exposure, increases heat tolerance of reef corals. *Global Change Biol.* **21**, 236-249 (2015). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12706
56. O. Hoegh-Guldberg, The adaptation of coral reefs to climate change: is the Red Queen being outpaced? *Sci. Mar.* **76**, 403-408 (2012). doi: 10.3989/scimar.2012.76n2
57. S. R. Palumbi, D. J. Barshis, N. Traylor-Knowles, R. A. Bay, Mechanisms of reef coral resistance to future climate change. *Science* **344**, 895-898 (2014). doi: 10.1126/science.1251336
58. M. Schweinsberg, L. C. Weiss, S. Striewski, R. Tollrian, K. P. Lampert, More than one genotype: How common is intracolony genetic variability in scleractinian corals? *Mol. Ecol.* (in press). doi: 10.1111/mec.13200
59. C. A. Logan, J. P. Dunne, C. M. Eakin, S. D. Donner, Incorporating adaptive responses into future projections of coral bleaching. *Global Change Biol.* **20**, 125-139 (2014). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12390

60. C. M. Eakin, Lamarck was partially right —and that is good for corals. *Science* **344**, 798-799 (2014). doi: 10.1126/science.1254136
61. J. M. Roberts, A. J. Wheeler, A. Freiwald, Reefs of the deep: The biology and geology of cold-water coral ecosystems. *Science* **312**, 543-547 (2006).
62. J.-P. Gattuso *et al.*, Ocean acidification in, C. B. Field *et al.*, Eds. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 2014), pp. 129-131.
63. J. Meyer, U. Riebesell, Reviews and Syntheses: Responses of coccolithophores to ocean acidification: a meta-analysis. *Biogeosciences* **12**, 1671-1682 (2015). doi: 10.5194/bg-12-1671-2015
64. K. J. S. Meier, L. Beaufort, S. Heussner, P. Ziveri, The role of ocean acidification in *Emiliania huxleyi* coccolith thinning in the Mediterranean Sea. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 2857-2869 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bg-11-2857-2014
65. N. Bednaršek, G. A. Tarling, D. C. E. Bakker, S. Fielding, R. A. Feely, Dissolution dominating calcification process in polar pteropods close to the point of aragonite undersaturation. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e109183 (2014). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0109183
66. N. Bednaršek *et al.*, Extensive dissolution of live pteropods in the Southern Ocean. *Nature Geosci.* **5**, 881-885 (2012). doi: 10.1038/ngeo1635
67. U. Riebesell, J.-P. Gattuso, T. F. Thingstad, J. J. Middelburg, Arctic ocean acidification: pelagic ecosystem and biogeochemical responses during a mesocosm study. *Biogeosciences* **10**, 5619-5626 (2013). doi: 10.5194/bg-10-5619-2013
68. S. Richier *et al.*, Phytoplankton responses and associated carbon cycling during shipboard carbonate chemistry manipulation experiments conducted around Northwest European shelf seas. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 4733-4752 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bg-11-4733-2014
69. S. Endres, L. Galgani, U. Riebesell, K. G. Schulz, A. Engel, Stimulated bacterial growth under elevated pCO₂: results from an off-shore mesocosm study. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e99228 (2014). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0099228
70. S. L. Garrard *et al.*, Indirect effects may buffer negative responses of seagrass invertebrate communities to ocean acidification. *J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol.* **461**, 31-38 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.jembe.2014.07.011
71. A. Ordoñez, C. Doropoulos, G. Diaz-Pulido, Effects of ocean acidification on population dynamics and community structure of crustose coralline algae. *Biol. Bull.* **226**, 255-268 (2014).
72. J. Silverman *et al.*, Community calcification in Lizard Island, Great Barrier Reef: A 33 year perspective. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.gca.2014.09.011
73. N. J. Silbiger, Ò. Guadayol, F. I. M. Thomas, M. J. Donahue, Reefs shift from net accretion to net erosion along a natural environmental gradient. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* **515**, 33-44 (2014). doi: 10.3354/meps10999
74. J. M. Sunday *et al.*, Evolution in an acidifying ocean. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **29**, 117-125 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.tree.2013.11.001
75. K. T. Lohbeck, U. Riebesell, T. B. H. Reusch, Gene expression changes in the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* after 500 generations of selection to ocean acidification. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Science* **281**, 20140003-20140003 (2014). doi: 10.1098/rspb.2014.0003

76. P. Thor, S. Dupont, Transgenerational effects alleviate severe fecundity loss during ocean acidification in a ubiquitous planktonic copepod. *Global Change Biol.* **21**, 2261-2271 (2015). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12815
77. C. C. Suckling *et al.*, Experimental influence of pH on the early life-stages of sea urchins II: increasing parental exposure times gives rise to different responses. *Invertebr. Reprod. Dev.* **58**, 161-175 (2014). doi: 10.1080/07924259.2013.875951
78. P. L. Munday, Transgenerational acclimation of fishes to climate change and ocean acidification. *F1000Prime Reports* **6**, 99 (2014). doi: 10.12703/P6-99
79. R. J. Diaz, R. Rosenberg, Spreading dead zones and consequences for marine ecosystems. *Science* **321**, 926-929 (2008). doi: 10.1126/science.1156401
80. H.-O. Pörtner, Oxygen- and capacity-limitation of thermal tolerance: a matrix for integrating climate-related stressor effects in marine ecosystems. *J. Exp. Biol.* **213**, 881-893 (2010). doi: 10.1242/jeb.037523
81. A. Brown, S. Thatje, The effects of changing climate on faunal depth distributions determine winners and losers. *Global Change Biol.* **21**, 173-180 (2015). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12680
82. D. Storch, L. Menzel, S. Frickenhaus, H.-O. Pörtner, Climate sensitivity across marine domains of life: limits to evolutionary adaptation shape species interactions. *Global Change Biol.* **20**, 3059-3067 (2014). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12645
83. J. S. Stewart *et al.*, Combined climate- and prey-mediated range expansion of Humboldt squid (*Dosidicus gigas*), a large marine predator in the California Current System. *Global Change Biol.* **20**, 1832-1843 (2014). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12502
84. J. D. Gaitán-Espitia *et al.*, Interactive effects of elevated temperature and pCO₂ on early-life-history stages of the giant kelp *Macrocystis pyrifera*. *J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol.* **457**, 51-58 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.jembe.2014.03.018
85. C. J. Gobler, E. L. DePasquale, A. W. Griffith, H. Baumann, Hypoxia and acidification have additive and synergistic negative effects on the growth, survival, and metamorphosis of early life stage bivalves. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e83648 (2014). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0083648
86. C. L. Mackenzie *et al.*, Ocean warming, more than acidification, reduces shell strength in a commercial shellfish species during food limitation. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e86764 (2014). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0086764
87. D. Madeira, L. Narciso, M. S. Diniz, C. Vinagre, Synergy of environmental variables alters the thermal window and heat shock response: an experimental test with the crab *Pachygrapsus marmoratus*. *Mar. Environ. Res.* **98**, 21-28 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.marenvres.2014.03.011
88. R. Rosa *et al.*, Differential impacts of ocean acidification and warming on winter and summer progeny of a coastal squid (*Loligo vulgaris*). *J. Exp. Biol.* **217**, 518-525 (2014). doi: 10.1242/jeb.096081
89. C. A. Frieder, J. P. Gonzalez, E. E. Bockmon, M. O. Navarro, L. A. Levin, Can variable pH and low oxygen moderate ocean acidification outcomes for mussel larvae? *Global Change Biol.* **20**, 754-764 (2014). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12485
90. J. Mukherjee *et al.*, Proteomic response of marine invertebrate larvae to ocean acidification and hypoxia during metamorphosis and calcification. *J. Exp. Biol.* **216**, 4580-4589 (2013). doi: 10.1242/jeb.094516

91. C. Deutsch, A. Ferrel, B. Seibel, H.-O. Pörtner, R. B. Huey, A metabolic constraint on marine habitat and its climatic changes. *Science* (in press).
92. S. Comeau, R. C. Carpenter, P. J. Edmunds, Effects of irradiance on the response of the coral *Acropora pulchra* and the calcifying alga *Hydrolithon reinboldii* to temperature elevation and ocean acidification. *J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol.* **453**, 28-35 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.jembe.2013.12.013
93. C. J. Hoppe *et al.*, Iron limitation modulates ocean acidification effects on southern ocean phytoplankton communities. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e79890 (2013). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0079890
94. G. W. K. Ko *et al.*, Interactive effects of ocean acidification, elevated temperature and reduced salinity on early-life stages of the Pacific oyster. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **48**, 10079-10088 (2014). doi: 10.1021/es501611u
95. A. J. Poulton *et al.*, Coccolithophores on the north-west European shelf: calcification rates and environmental controls. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 3919-3940 (2014). doi: 10.5194/bg-11-3919-2014
96. R. I. Perry, R. E. Ommer, M. Barange, F. Werner, The challenge of adapting marine social-ecological systems to the additional stress of climate change. *Curr. Opin. Environ. Sustain.* **2**, 356-363 (2010). doi: 10.1016/j.cosust.2010.10.004
97. J. Brodie *et al.*, The future of the northeast Atlantic benthic flora in a high CO₂ world. *Ecol. Evol.* **4**, 2787-2798 (2014). doi: 10.1002/ece3.1105
98. M. O. Clarkson *et al.*, Ocean acidification and the Permo-Triassic mass extinction. *Science* **348**, 229-232 (2015). doi: 10.1126/science.aaa0193
99. S. E. Moffitt, T. M. Hill, P. D. Roopnarine, J. P. Kennett, Response of seafloor ecosystems to abrupt global climate change. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **112**, 4684-4689 (2015). doi: 10.1073/pnas.1417130112
100. A. Bohnke-Henrichs, C. Baulcomb, R. Koss, S. S. Hussain, R. S. de Groot, Typology and indicators of ecosystem services for marine spatial planning and management. *J. Environ. Manage.* **130**, 135-145 (2013). doi: 10.1016/j.jenvman.2013.08.027
101. J. Mendler de Suarez, B. Cicin-Sain, K. Wowk, R. Payet, O. Hoegh-Guldberg, Ensuring survival: oceans, climate and security. *Ocean Coastal Manage.* **90**, 27-37 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2013.08.007
102. U. Riebesell, A. Körtzinger, A. Oschlies, Sensitivities of marine carbon fluxes to ocean change. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **106**, 20602-20609 (2009). doi: 10.1073/pnas.0813291106
103. C. M. Duarte, I. J. Losada, I. E. Hendriks, I. Mazarrasa, N. Marbà, The role of coastal plant communities for climate change mitigation and adaptation. *Nat. Clim. Change* **3**, 961-968 (2013). doi: 10.1038/nclimate1970
104. M. D. Spalding *et al.*, The role of ecosystems in coastal protection: adapting to climate change and coastal hazards. *Ocean Coastal Manage.* **90**, 50-57 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2013.09.007
105. B. Ondiviela *et al.*, The role of seagrasses in coastal protection in a changing climate. *Coastal Eng.* **87**, 158-168 (2014). doi: 10.1016/j.coastaleng.2013.11.005
106. J. Hinkel *et al.*, Coastal flood damage and adaptation costs under 21st century sea-level rise. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **111**, 3292-3297 (2014). doi: 10.1073/pnas.1222469111

107. R. Costanza *et al.*, The value of coastal wetlands for hurricane protection. *Ambio* **37**, 241-248 (2008). doi: 10.1579/0044-7447(2008)37%5B241:TVOCWF%5D2.0.CO;2
108. E. B. Barbier, Valuing the storm protection service of estuarine and coastal ecosystems. *Ecosyst. Serv.* **11**, 32-38 (2015). doi: 10.1016/j.ecoser.2014.06.010
109. U. R. Sumaila, W. W. L. Cheung, V. W. Y. Lam, D. Pauly, S. Herrick, Climate change impacts on the biophysics and economics of world fisheries. *Nat. Clim. Change* **1**, 449-456 (2011). doi: 10.1038/nclimate1301
110. W. W. Cheung, R. Watson, D. Pauly, Signature of ocean warming in global fisheries catch. *Nature* **497**, 365-368 (2013). doi: 10.1038/nature12156
111. S. Jung, I.-C. Pang, J.- Lee, I. Choi, H. K. Cha, Latitudinal shifts in the distribution of exploited fishes in Korean waters during the last 30 years: a consequence of climate change. *Rev. Fish Biol. Fish.* **24**, 443-462 (2014). doi: 10.1007/s11160-013-9310-1
112. I. Montero-Serra, M. Edwards, M. J. Genner, Warming shelf seas drive the subtropicalization of European pelagic fish communities. *Global Change Biol.* **21**, 144-153 (2015). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12747
113. S. D. Simpson *et al.*, Continental shelf-wide response of a fish assemblage to rapid warming of the sea. *Current Biol.* **21**, 1565-1570 (2011). doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2011.08.016
114. D. Yemane *et al.*, Assessing changes in the distribution and range size of demersal fish populations in the Benguela Current Large Marine Ecosystem. *Rev. Fish Biol. Fish.* **24**, 463-483 (2014). doi: 10.1007/s11160-014-9357-7
115. A. R. Baudron, C. L. Needle, A. D. Rijnsdorp, C. T. Marshall, Warming temperatures and smaller body sizes: synchronous changes in growth of North Sea fishes. *Global Change Biol.* **20**, 1023-1031 (2014). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12514
116. S. R. Cooley, J. T. Mathis, Addressing ocean acidification as part of sustainable ocean development. *Ocean Yearbook Online* **27**, 29-47 (2013). doi: 10.1163/22116001-90000153
117. M. Barange *et al.*, Impacts of climate change on marine ecosystem production in societies dependent on fisheries. *Nat. Clim. Change* **4**, 211-216 (2014). doi: 10.1038/nclimate2119
118. V. W. Y. Lam, W. W. L. Cheung, U. R. Sumaila, Marine capture fisheries in the Arctic: winners or losers under climate change and ocean acidification? *Fish Fish.* (in press). doi: 10.1111/faf.12106
119. V. W. Y. Lam, W. Cheung, W. Swartz, U. R. Sumaila, Climate change impacts on fisheries in West Africa: Implications for economic, food and nutritional security. *Afr. J. Mar. Sci.* **34**, 103-117 (2012). doi: 10.2989/1814232X.2012.673294
120. J. D. Bell *et al.*, Mixed responses of tropical Pacific fisheries and aquaculture to climate change. *Nat. Clim. Change* **3**, 591-591 (2013). doi: 10.1038/nclimate1838
121. W. W. L. Cheung *et al.*, Large-scale redistribution of maximum fisheries catch potential in the global ocean under climate change. *Global Change Biol.* **16**, 24-35 (2010). doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2009.01995.x
122. J. T. Mathis *et al.*, Ocean acidification risk assessment for Alaska's fishery sector. *Prog. Oceanogr.* (in press). doi: 10.1016/j.pocean.2014.07.001
123. C. H. Ainsworth *et al.*, Potential impacts of climate change on Northeast Pacific marine foodwebs and fisheries. *ICES J. Mar. Sci.* **68**, 1217-1229 (2011). doi: 10.1093/icesjms/fsr043

124. W. W. L. Cheung, J. Pinnegar, G. Merino, M. C. Jones, M. Barange, Review of climate change impacts on marine fisheries in the UK and Ireland. *Aquat. Conserv. Mar. Freshwater Ecosyst.* **22**, 368-388 (2012). doi: 10.1002/aqc.2248
125. J. S. Christiansen, C. W. Mecklenburg, O. V. Karamushko, Arctic marine fishes and their fisheries in light of global change. *Glob Chang Biol* **20**, 352-359 (2014). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12395
126. K. A. Miller, G. R. Munro, U. R. Sumaila, W. W. L. Cheung, Governing marine fisheries in a changing climate: a game-theoretic perspective. *Can. J. Agric. Econ.* **61**, 309-334 (2013). doi: 10.1111/cjag.12011
127. R. Callaway *et al.*, Review of climate change impacts on marine aquaculture in the UK and Ireland. *Aquat. Conserv. Mar. Freshwater Ecosyst.* **22**, 389-421 (2012). doi: 10.1002/aqc.2247
128. M. Ruckelshaus *et al.*, Securing ocean benefits for society in the face of climate change. *Mar. Policy* **40**, 154-159 (2013). doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2013.01.009
129. A. Barton, B. Hales, G. G. Waldbusser, C. Langdon, R. A. Feely, The Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, shows negative correlation to naturally elevated carbon dioxide levels: Implications for near-term ocean acidification effects. *Limnol. Oceanogr.* **57**, 698-710 (2012). doi: 10.4319/lo.2012.57.3.0698
130. D. Narita, K. Rehdanz, R. S. J. Tol, Economic costs of ocean acidification: a look into the impacts on shellfish production. *Clim. Change* **113**, 1049-1063 (2012). doi: 10.1007/s10584-011-0383-3
131. S. S. De Silva, Climate change impacts: challenges for aquaculture in, R. P. Subasinghe *et al.*, Eds. (FAO and NACA, Rome and Bangkok, 2012), pp. 75-110.
132. C. A. Burge *et al.*, Climate change influences on marine infectious diseases: implications for management and society. *Annu. Rev. Mar. Sci.* **6**, 249-277 (2014). doi: 10.1146/annurev-marine-010213-135029
133. J. Garai, The impacts of climate change on the livelihoods of coastal people in Bangladesh: a sociological study in, W. Leal Filho, F. Alves, S. Caeiro, U. M. Azeiteiro, Eds. (Springer International Publishing, 2014), pp. 151-163.
134. P.-Y. Chen, C.-C. Chen, L. F. Chu, B. McCarl, Evaluating the economic damage of climate change on global coral reefs. *Global Environ. Change* **30**, 12-20 (2015). doi: 10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2014.10.011
135. Deloitte Access Economics, *Economic contribution of the Great Barrier Reef* (Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority, Townsville, 2013), pp. 42.
136. L. M. Brander, K. Rehdanz, R. S. J. Tol, P. J. H. Van Beukering, The economic impact of ocean acidification on coral reefs. *Clim. Change Econ.* **03**, 1250002 (2012). doi: 10.1142/S2010007812500029
137. L. M. Burke, K. Reytar, M. Spalding, A. Perry, *Reefs at risk revisited* (World Resources Institute, Washington, DC, 2011), pp. 114.
138. M. Pascual, X. Rodó, S. P. Ellner, R. Colwell, M. J. Bouma, Cholera dynamics and El Nino-southern oscillation. *Science* **289**, 1766-1769 (2000). doi: 10.1126/science.289.5485.1766
139. C. Baker-Austin *et al.*, Emerging *Vibrio* risk at high latitudes in response to ocean warming. *Nat. Clim. Change* **3**, 73-77 (2013). doi: 10.1038/nclimate1628

140. S. Altizer, R. S. Ostfeld, P. T. Johnson, S. Kutz, C. D. Harvell, Climate change and infectious diseases: from evidence to a predictive framework. *Science* **341**, 514-519 (2013). doi: 10.1126/science.1239401
141. T. L. F. Leung, A. E. Bates, More rapid and severe disease outbreaks for aquaculture at the tropics: implications for food security. *J. Applied Ecol.* **50**, 215-222 (2013). doi: 10.1111/1365-2644.12017
142. T. Wheeler, J. von Braun, Climate change impacts on global food security. *Science* **341**, 508-513 (2013). doi: 10.1126/science.1239402
143. R. P. Kelly, M. R. Caldwell, Ten ways states can combat ocean acidification (and why they should). *Harvard Environ. Law Rev.* (2013).
144. E. Mcleod *et al.*, Preparing to manage coral reefs for ocean acidification: lessons from coral bleaching. *Frontiers Ecol. Environ.* **11**, 20-27 (2013). doi: 10.1890/110240
145. A. L. Strong, K. J. Kroeker, L. T. Teneva, L. A. Mease, R. P. Kelly, Ocean acidification 2.0: managing our changing coastal ocean chemistry. *BioScience* **64**, 581-592 (2014). doi: 10.1093/biosci/biu072
146. R. Billé *et al.*, Taking action against ocean acidification: a review of management and policy options. *Environ. Manage.* **52**, 761-779 (2013). doi: 10.1007/s00267-013-0132-7
147. Committee on Geoengineering Climate: Technical Evaluation and Discussion of Impacts, *Climate intervention: reflecting sunlight to cool earth* (National Academy of Sciences, Washington, 2015), pp. 220.
148. M. D. Eisaman *et al.*, CO₂ extraction from seawater using bipolar membrane electrodialysis. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **5**, 7346 (2012). doi: 10.1039/c2ee03393c
149. M. J. H. van Oppen, J. K. Oliver, H. M. Putnam, R. D. Gates, Building coral reef resilience through assisted evolution. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **112**, 2307-2313 (2015). doi: 10.1073/pnas.1422301112
150. C. N. Young, S. A. Schopmeyer, D. Lirman, A review of reef restoration and coral propagation using the threatened genus *Acropora* in the Caribbean and Western Atlantic. *Bull. Mar. Sci.* **88**, 1075-1098 (2012). doi: 10.5343/bms.2011.1143
151. H. Govan *et al.*, *Status and potential of locally-managed marine areas in the South Pacific: meeting nature conservation and sustainable livelihood targets through wide-spread implementation of LMMAs* (SPREP/WWF/WorldFish-Reefbase/CRISP, Noumea, New Caledonia, 2009), pp. 95.
152. R. P. Kelly, S. R. Cooley, T. Klinger, Narratives can motivate environmental action: the Whiskey Creek ocean acidification story. *Ambio* **43**, 592-599 (2014). doi: 10.1007/s13280-013-0442-2
153. L. Weatherdon, A. Rogers, R. Sumaila, A. Magnan, W. W. L. Cheung, *The Oceans 2015 Initiative, Part II: An updated understanding of the observed and projected impacts of ocean warming and acidification on marine and coastal socioeconomic activities/sectors* (IDDRI, Paris, 2015), pp. 44.
154. R. Murti, C. Buyck, Eds., *Safe havens: protected areas for disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation* (IUCN, Gland, Switzerland, 2014).
155. G. Keppel *et al.*, The capacity of refugia for conservation planning under climate change. *Frontiers Ecol. Environ.* **13**, 106-112 (2015). doi: 10.1890/140055
156. C. Cacciapaglia, R. van Woesik, Reef-coral refugia in a rapidly changing ocean. *Global Change Biol.* **21**, 2272-2282 (2015). doi: 10.1111/gcb.12851

157. M. D. Mastrandrea *et al.*, *Guidance note for lead authors of the IPCC fifth assessment report on consistent treatment of uncertainties* (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), 2010), pp. 4.

Acknowledgements: This is a product of "The Oceans 2015 Initiative", an expert group supported by the Prince Albert II of Monaco Foundation, the Ocean Acidification International Coordination Centre of the International Atomic Energy Agency, the BNP Paribas Foundation and the Monégasque Association for Ocean Acidification. This study is also a contribution to the international IMBER project. We are grateful for the considerable help of Y. Estrada (Technical Support Unit of IPCC WG II) and M. Khamla to finalize the illustrations, and H. Flores for useful discussion. AM acknowledges support from the French National Research Agency (CapAdapt project, ANR-2011-JSH1-004 01). RB is supported by the RESCCUE project funded by the French Development Agency and the French Global Environment Facility (AFD CZZ 1647 01 F and FFEM CZZ 1667 01 H). WWLC acknowledges support from the Nippon Foundation-UBC Nereus Program and NSERC. URS and WWLC thank the SSHRC-sponsored OceanCanada Partnership for support. CT is supported by the UK Ocean Acidification research programme. FJ acknowledges support by the Swiss National Science Foundation and the European Commission through the EU FP7 project CARBOCHANGE (# 264879). OHG is grateful for support from the University of Queensland, Australian Research Council Centre for Excellence, and his ARC Laureate Fellowship. HOP acknowledges support by the PACES and BIOACID programs. CME acknowledges support from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. The International Atomic Energy Agency is grateful to the Government of the Principality of Monaco for the support provided to its Environment Laboratories. We acknowledge the World Climate Research Programme's Working Group on Coupled Modelling, which is responsible for CMIP, and thank the climate modeling groups for producing and making available their model output. For CMIP the U.S. Department of Energy's Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison provides coordinating support and led development of software infrastructure in partnership with the Global Organization for Earth System Science Portals. The contents in this manuscript are solely the opinions of the authors and do not constitute a statement of policy, decision or position on behalf of NOAA, NASA, the U.S. Government, or the Secretariat of the Pacific Community.

Fig. 1. Environmental changes over the industrial period and the 21st century for a business-as-usual scenario (RCP8.5, red lines) and a stringent emissions scenario consistent with the UNFCCC target of increase in global surface temperature by 2°C (RCP2.6, blue lines). The left panels show changes in globally-averaged (A) sea surface temperature (SST), (B) sea level, (C) sea surface pH (total pH scale), (D) ocean volume (in % of total ocean volume) with saturation state of calcium carbonate in aragonitic form (Ω_a) above 1 and above 3, and (E) dissolved oxygen. Right: the maps show the 21st century changes in sea surface temperature (F and G) and in sea surface pH (H and I) for RCP8.5 (top) and RCP2.6 (bottom), respectively. All projected values represent ensemble mean values from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 5 (CMIP5; ref. 23).

Fig. 2. Observed impact and risk scenarios of ocean warming and acidification for some important organisms and critical ecosystem services. “Present-day” (grey dotted line) corresponds to the period 2005-2014. Impact levels are for the year 2100 under the different projections shown, and do not consider genetic adaptation, acclimatization or human risk reduction strategies (mitigation and societal adaptation). RCP4.5 is shown for illustrative purposes as an intermediate scenario between the business-as-usual high-emissions scenario (RCP8.5) and the stringent reduction scenario (RCP2.6). (A) Changes in global average sea surface temperature and pH versus cumulative fossil fuel emissions. Realized fossil emissions (26) are indicated for different years below the horizontal axis whereas the lines are based on allowable emissions estimated from ensemble means of the CMIP5 simulations for the industrial period and the 21st century following RCP2.6, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5 (23). Cumulative emission of 1000 GtC causes a global SST change of about 1.7°C and a surface pH change of about -0.22 units. The colored shadings indicate the 68% confidence interval for pH (grey) and SST (pink) from observation-constrained, probabilistic projections using 55 multi-gas emissions scenarios (24). (B) Risk of impacts due to elevated CO₂ on key organisms that are well-documented in the literature. (C) Risk of impacts due to elevated CO₂ on critical

ecosystem services. The levels of confidence in the risk levels synthesize the author team's judgments (see Supplementary Materials) about the validity of findings as determined through evaluation of evidence and agreement (157).

Fig. 3.

Regional changes in the physical system and associated risks for natural and human-managed systems. Projected changes in sea surface temperature (Δ SST) and pH (Δ pH) in 2090-2099 relative to pre-industrial under the RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios are displayed in different colors on the map. The major ocean regions are indicated as well as examples of risks for natural systems and fisheries [modified from (1)]. Text in parentheses specifies the level of confidence (157).

Fig. 4. Four clusters of actions against climate change, including ocean acidification. For each cluster a non exhaustive list of actions is shown. $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$ is concentration of atmospheric CO_2 ; GH is greenhouse; GHG is greenhouse gases; MPAs is marine protected areas. The mitigation pathway leading to CO_2 reductions is represented in bold, consistent with the consensus view that significant reductions in CO_2 emissions is presently the only actual “solution” to the ocean impacts of climate change and ocean acidification (see main text).

Table 1. Changes in SST, pH, oxygen content, and sea level, and ocean volume with respect to aragonite for CMIP5 models and several RCP emissions scenarios. a: value for 2010 obtained from instrumental records. After Bopp et al. (23) except sea level rise (28).

	Δ SST (°C)	Δ pH (unit)	Δ O ₂ content (%)	Sea level (m)	Vol. $\Omega_a >$ 1 (%)	Vol. $\Omega_a >$ 3 (%)
Changes relative to 1990-1999						
2090-2099 (RCP8.5)	2.73	-0.33	-3.48	0.67	9.4	0
2090-2099 (RCP4.5)	1.28	-0.15	-2.37	0.49	15	0.57
2090-2099 (RCP2.6)	0.71	-0.07	-1.81	0.41	17.3	1.22
1990s (1990-1999)	0	0	0	0	24	1.82
Preindustrial (1870-1899)	-0.44	0.07	-	-	25.6	2.61
Preindustrial (1870-1879)	-0.38	0.07	-	-	25.6	2.67
Changes relatives to 1870-1899 (except sea level, relative to 1901)						
2090-2099 (RCP8.5)	3.17	-0.40	-	0.86	-	-
2090-2099 (RCP4.5)	1.72	-0.22	-	0.68	-	-
2090-2099 (RCP2.6)	1.15	-0.14	-	0.60	-	-
2010s (2010-2019)	0.83	-0.11	-	-	-	-
Past 10 years (2005-2014)	0.72	-0.10	-	0.19 ^a	-	-
1990s (1990-1999)	0.44	-0.07	-	-	-	-
Preindustrial (1870-1899)	0	0	-	0	-	-

Supplementary Materials:

Materials and Methods

Tables S1

Tables S2

Author contributions